Acacia is one of the most important genera of woody plants on Earth. Distributed in all of the continents except Antarctica, acacias are dominant shrubs and trees in many bushland and savanna habitats (Ross 1981; Coe et al. 1999; Maslin 2001; Maslin et al., this volume, Rico-Arce, this volume). Acacias are commonly key species in such environments, providing food and other resources for an enormous diversity of mammals, birds and invertebrates (e.g. Krüger and McGavin 1998; Bond and Loffell 2001; Dean et al. 2002). Indirect interactions, mediated by shared herbivores and pollinators, link acacias to other plants within the communities of which they are a part (Stone et al. 1998). The foliage, fruits, wood and bark of many acacias have been used by humankind for centuries as fodder for livestock, sources of famine food and medicines, and fuel, and many species are important in modern agroforestry worldwide (Midgley and Turnbull, this volume). Given this importance, it is incredible how little we know about the vast majority of acacias. The papers collected in this special journal issue were presented at the Fourth International Legume Conference in Canberra (2-6 July 2001). Each highlights a current issue in acacia research, combining new results or synthesis with discussion of the challenges to be met in future work.

One of the most basic questions remains the taxonomic status of the genus (Maslin et al., this volume), and its relationship to other closely related mimosoid genera. As currently defined, Acacia comprises three subgenera: Acacia, Aculeiferum and Phyllodineae. These three subgenera differ substantially in their geographic distributions and in a range of biological characters. For example, Acacia and Aculeiferum have bipinnate leaves, and have major centres of species richness in Central America and Africa. These subgenera have short-lived and apparently protandrous flowers, and both groups include species ('ant acacias') that harbour mutualistic ant guards in hollow swollen thorns (Stone et al., this volume). In contrast, most species in the subgenus Phyllodineae have phyllodes (flattened photosynthesising leaf rachises) rather than bipinnate leaves, and most species are found in Australia. Their flowers are generally long-lived and clearly protogynous, and despite the great species richness of both the Phyllodineae and the Australian ant fauna, there are no phyllodinous ant acacias. Does this diversity in Acacia represent the result of adaptive radiation within a single monophyletic lineage? A growing body of research based on DNA sequence data strongly suggests that the answer to this question is no. Acacia is an artificial polyphyletic assemblage (Maslin et al., this volume, Miller and Bayer, this volume, Murphy et al., this volume), and relationships between and within the recognised Acacia subgenera, and between Acacia and related mimosoid genera, need to be reassessed. Improved understanding of acacia phylogeny may help explain much of the variation currently encompassed within the genus (e.g. Lamarque and Fortunato, this volume), and is essential for reconstructing the evolutionary history of important biological traits, such as the floral traits and ant associations discussed above.

Relationships within currently recognised Acacia species raise as many questions as those among species and subgenera. Many Acacia species include morphologically distinct growth forms—an issue that is well-illustrated in this volume by work on three groups of Australian taxa (Andrew et al.; Byrne and Broadhurst; McDonald et al.). Are such forms genetically distinct ecotypes, or does such diversity have a non-heritable, environmental origin? This is an important issue for land managers, where the alternative growth forms differ in properties such as wood quality and resistance to soil salinity or fire (Byrne and Broadhurst, this volume). It is also just as important for those working in conservation. Increasingly, fragmented habitats threaten the survival of many acacias, particularly the Wheat Belt region of Western Australia (Cunningham 2000a, 2000b), and difficult decisions must be made about where limited resources for conservation and environment restoration should be invested. Population genetic methods provide the best available approach for assessing patterns of genetic diversity within species, and so provide a means to prioritise populations for protection (Crandall et al. 2000).

Studies of genetic diversity within Acacia species are also being used increasingly to reveal fundamental aspects of acacia biology. Two applications discussed in this volume include the distinction between sexual and asexual reproduction (Andrew et al., this volume), and the extent to which seeds on a given tree are produced by outcrossing and self-fertilisation (Mandal and Ennos 1995; Kenrick, this volume). In general, acacia populations show a high level of outcrossing, illustrating the point that management of acacia populations (both wild and managed) requires an understanding of the ecology of their pollinators. This is an issue of immediate concern, because, although we know a lot about the pollination biology of a small number of acacias, almost nothing is known about the vast majority (Kenrick, this volume, Stone et al., this volume). Enlightening our ignorance will not only involve identifying flower visitors and assessing their role as pollinators of specific acacias, but also needs to examine the importance of other factors (such as resources provided by other plants and the availability of suitable breeding or nesting sites) in pollinator survival (Stone et al., this volume). The human effort required to investigate these issues in detail means that the high species richness of acacias, in Australia in particular, represents a major challenge for pollination ecologists. However, the potential rewards are also great: preservation of functioning

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plant–pollinator relationships (Lennartsson 2002), and a wealth of data for the analysis of patterns in pollinator assemblages across species.

In addition to their roles in natural ecosystems, many acacias have been introduced to novel habitats as sources of timber and fodder, in land reclamation (Bell et al., this volume) and as amenity trees in parks and gardens. Acacias hold great promise as sustainable sources of food for humans and their domestic animals in arid and semi-arid habitats (Midgely and Turnbull, this volume). However, acacias also illustrate all too well the potential dangers of biological introductions (Paynter et al., this volume). Introduced acacias have become major invasive weeds in Australia (where African Acacia nilotica is a major problem in Queensland) and southern Africa (where, in a rare example of reciprocal trouble-making, the invaders are Australian species) (Radford et al. 2001; Hoffman et al. 2002). The threats may be obvious ones: reducing land value for stock grazing, or depleting available soil water levels (Le Maitre et al. 2002). However, many other impacts on native taxa may be less obvious. For example, do introduced acacias compete with native species for the services of pollinators, so reducing the seed set of the native species, or do they enhance pollinator populations to mutual advantage (Stone et al., this volume). Do they maintain high populations of pests that inflict damage on native species through apparent competition? (Holt and Lawton 1994).

The issues raised in this preface cover a wide range of scientific disciplines, and apply equally to other plant groups. The ecological and economic importance of acacias means that biologists must rise to the challenge of combining science and management to maintain what is valued, and control what is not. The greatest challenge remaining is to make 'value' an issue that is not defined solely by human need.

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